University of Montana

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN: ERB

APRIL 18, 1934

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

Vol. XIII, No. 4

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN

(Entered in the United States Patent Office)

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PUBLISHED MONTHLY BY THE BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, FOR THE SCHOOLS OF OHIO. EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICES, ROOM 203, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, COLUMBUS, OHIO

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THE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH BULLETIN is published monthly except during June, July, and August. Entered as Second-Class Matter, February 9, 1922, at the Post-Office at Columbus, Ohio, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Accepted for mailing at specified rates of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized February 21, 1922.

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Educational Research Bulletin

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Is Instruction in the Principles of Honesty Effective?

By CLOY S. HOBSON
Directed by W. W. Charters

A survey of the literature on character education reveals a lack of uniform method in practice throughout the country. Some schools teach good conduct directly; others teach it indirectly. Some teach by means of principles of honesty; others teach only the reactions to specific situations. Some teach class groups; others teach only individuals. Some have courses in character study; others teach it as incidental or unitary parts of other courses. Some educators believe character traits can be developed by training the intellect; others believe they can be developed only by training the emotions. Some believe character education is a function of the secular schools; others think it is the business of the church schools only. The point of view held or the method selected is largely a matter of philosophical judgment, for evidence arising out of experiments rigorously conducted is meager and inconclusive. The relative values of the methods now in use can be established only by careful and extensive experimental work.

In this study, the effectiveness of direct instruction by the use of principles was appraised as a means of establishing an understanding of what constitutes honest conduct. No attempt was made to measure or improve actual conduct. The attempt was made by means of tests to discover the pupil's conception of what a person should do in the selected situation. The instruction, by giving an understanding of the principles of honesty, attempted to raise that conception toward the ideal. The experiment was not carried out by highly rigorous methods so the significance of the results is limited. It is hoped, however, that the method and the results may be suggestive.

Several years ago a group of high-school Seniors selected from Charters' list of honesty situations sixty concerning the solutions of which they thought high-school pupils would have differences of opinion. From these sixty situations the writer selected the twenty-nine for use in this study.[1] An idea of the form used can be got from the first three "honesty situations" which were as follows:

What is the honest thing to do if:

1. You can borrow money for a time from your little brother's bank or from a treasury fund in your keeping, return it later, and no one need know about it.
2. You borrow a small sum for car fare or a movie ticket. When you offer to pay it back, the lender says, "Never mind, that's all right."
3. You find money. You do not know to whom it belongs.

Twenty adult judges—school-teachers, professional men, business men, housewives, and farmers—each of whom had had at least two years of college training, were asked to write out the ideal reaction and the principles on which the reaction was based for each of the twenty-nine situations. From the reports of the judges the "ideal reactions" and the "principles of honesty" were drawn up. Each set was resubmitted to the judges for correction, and an 80-per cent agreement or higher was secured on each item finally included in the lists. The ideal reactions were, of course, arrived at empirically. A scientific method of securing them would require years of time and would give, perhaps, no better results in this experiment. The ideal reactions to the first three honesty situations were:

1. Do not borrow without the consent of the owner.
2. Pay it back even though he says you need not.
3. Do not keep it, but find the owner or turn it over to the "lost and found" department. If the owner does not claim it after due advertising and after a reasonable time has elapsed, you may claim title to it and take it under direction of proper authority. You must, of course, if the real owner ever turns up, restore the property.

The principles of honesty underlying the first three problem situations were:

1. The owner of property has the sole right to its use or disposition, so one may not borrow money or property without the consent of the owner or his authorized agents.
2. Borrowing entails the obligation to repay and is not the first step in obtaining a gift. The lender loans in good faith that he will get his money back.

[1]Charters, W. W. *The Teaching of Ideals.* New York: Macmillan Company. 1927.

So one may not accept the loan as a gift without violating the original intention of the lender and the borrower.

3. Money or property may be honestly acquired: (1) by working for it, (2) by trade, in which recognized equal values are exchanged with the consent of both parties, (3) by gift of the owner, (4) by original discovery. Money found is not acquired by one of these four methods so does not belong to the finder. The finder may, however, after a reasonable effort has been made to find the owner, after a reasonable time has elapsed, and with the consent of proper authority, as the secretary of the lost and found department, if such an authority exists, take the money or property until the owner is found.

A part of the scale for scoring reactions was obtained from the reports of the judges. The rest of the scale was obtained by having four judges score by the judgment method the reactions of the pupils to the situations. A unanimous agreement of the four judges was secured on each item included in the scale. The numbers at the left of the items in the section of the scale which follows indicate the values assigned to the items for the first three situations in the Scale for Scoring Reactions to Honesty Situations:

Situation 1:

5—Do not borrow without consent of owner.
1—Borrow and tell owner afterwards.
1—Do not take it unless mother knows.
0—Borrow and do not tell but pay it back as soon as you can.

Situation 2:

5—Pay it back even though he says you need not.
5—Give it to him through responsible agents.
3—Pay in kind some time later.
3—Make him take it if possible.
M—Do not borrow in the first place.[2]
0—Make no further effort to pay it back.

Situation 3:

5—Do not keep it, but find owner or turn it over to "lost and found" department or other agency responsible in trying to locate owner. If owner does not claim it after reasonable time and due advertising, you may claim title to it and receive it under proper authority. You must, however, if the real owner turns up, restore his property to him.
3—Try to find the owner.
3—Advertise for owner.
1—Ask people. If not claimed, keep it.
0—Give it to Salvation Army.
0—Keep it until some one claims it.

The situations were submitted on mimeographed sheets to pupils in class groups from Grades V through XII. Each

[2]The score *M* indicates the reaction is a misfire.

pupil was instructed to write after the situation what he thought a person should do, not would do, if he were confronted by the situation described. The examiner read the situation, making any explanation necessary for a full understanding of the conditions involved. Each pupil recorded his reaction. It required thirty minutes to take the reactions of a class group, an average of one minute for each situation. It was thought that if the pupil had only one minute, his reaction would be likely to be more nearly spontaneous than if he had a longer time. The writer took the reactions, gave the tests in all groups, and kept the procedure as nearly uniform as possible.

EACH grade was divided into two groups: one to receive instruction, the other to receive none but to act as a control group. In all grades except the seventh and eighth the division was made so as to have about the same range of scores and about the same average score in the control group as in the study group. In the seventh and eighth grades, because of administrative convenience, the study group was composed of boys and the control group of girls.

From the "principles of honesty," taken from the judges' reports, a set of "honesty understandings" was drawn up. The judges criticized these understandings, and no item was included which was not considered by 80 per cent of the judges to be necessary for understanding the principles. One quotation from the "honesty understandings" will show the type of problems which were presented to all the pupils for their consideration and for an expression of judgment:

One should not lie:

1. One should not tell for the truth something he knows to be false.
2. One should not tell for the truth something he doesn't know to be the truth.
3. One should not tell a truth or a partial truth in such a way as to give a false impression, for one is responsible not only for what he says, but also for the impression he gives.
4. One should serve the spirit as well as the letter of the idea, as "to study hard" includes quantity as well as quality.
5. One should serve the correct definition of terms, as "to study" means more than merely glancing in a book.

With the "understandings" as a basis, a "course of study" was developed. It was so arranged that the pupils would arrive at conclusions by discussion and reflection. The developmental method was used. Illustrative material and specific situations

were employed. The situations in the original test were usually avoided. One section will serve as an illustration.

Problem VI. Why should one be truthful?

A. What constitutes a breach of truth?

Ex. 1. Show how each one of the following may be a lie:

a. Telling for truth something one knows to be false.

b. Telling for truth something one knows not to be true. Lincoln said, "One who tells for the truth something he does not know to be the truth is just as much a liar as one who tells for the truth something he knows to be false."

c. Telling a partial truth in such a way that one gives a false impression.

d. Failing to say anything.

e. Serving the letter only of an idea, as promising to "study hard" and then studying hard for only five minutes.

f. Serving an incorrect definition of a term, as saying you have "studied" when you merely glanced over the lesson material.

B. What is the effect of a falsehood?

Ex. 1. Illustrate from your own observation how falsehood has injured innocent people. The one who lies. Discuss Godfrey Cass in *Silas Marner* who injured Eppie, Nancy, and himself by not acknowledging his wife. Discuss the salesman who gives a wrong impression of his goods with or without direct lying.

Ex. 2. What is gossip? What is wrong about it?

Ex. 3. What is dangerous in the theory that "the end justifies the means?" Discuss the boy who smokes but lies about it so he can play on the basketball team.

Ex. 4. Discuss the consequences of lying, as injury to innocent persons; the liar comes to the condition in which no one will believe anything he says (Story of the herd-boy who shouted "wolf," etc.).

Conclusion: State definitely why one should not lie.

Each study group looked up in the course of study the situation to which the class had reacted during class discussion. Fifteen periods of thirty minutes each were required to complete the "course of study." The pupils in the study group were requested not to show their notes nor to discuss the material with members of the control group.

A set of situations, parallel to the ones in the original test, was made by the writer. No attempt was made to determine the relative difficulty of the two tests. It was submitted to four of the judges who agreed that the situations were comparable with the original ones in difficulty and in their relation to the principles.

The day after the study group had finished the "course of study," the parallel test was given. The pupils in the control

group were, of course, included. The test was given in thirty minutes as had been the original test—the Honesty Situations.

All papers were scored by the writer. If a pupil's reaction was not clearly like an item in the scale for scoring, that reaction was submitted to the four judges, given a value, and placed in the scale. On both tests it was found that some situations had not been fully understood or that some reactions could not be interpreted as an action applying in that situation. Such a result was called a "misfire," and scored *M*. There were few misfires in the four upper grades, but there were many more in the two lower grades. A perfect reaction was scored 5; one that failed completely, 0; those of intermediate value, 3 and 1. The pupil's raw score was the sum of his scores on the situations plus the *M*'s. Since the *M*'s could not conveniently be handled statistically with the numerical scores, it was decided to credit the pupil on the misfire items with the same score he would have made if he had done as well on the misfire items as on the others. This formula was used to obtain the corrected score:

$$X = \frac{29\,S}{29 - M}$$

in which X is the corrected score, S is the numerical raw score, and M is the number of misfires. The constant, 29, represents the number of situations in each test.

Table I shows the average scores of all groups after the correction formula has been applied. The average gain of the study groups is twice that of the control groups, 12 to 6. In the ninth grade the control group makes a greater gain than the study group, 11 to 10. In the other grades the scores show definitely that the study groups made greater gains in ideals of honesty than did the control groups.

One may question why the control groups show an average gain of six points even though they had no instruction. Two possible explanations present themselves. The original test may be more difficult than the parallel test, so that the pupils generally made higher scores on the parallel test. The more likely explanation is that the ideals of honesty of the pupils were raised by the mere taking of the tests and by the thinking and the informal discussion among themselves which the tests stimulated. About 80 per cent of the pupils, when asked after the original test, "Were your ideals of honesty raised by taking this test?" answered in the affirmative.

The writer made two attempts to discover the difference between what the pupil thought should be done and what he thought he would do if actually confronted by the situation. He first asked the twelfth-grade pupils in the experiment to check over their responses on the parallel test and mark the ones in which they thought their performance, if they were actually faced with the situation, would fall below the reaction which they had set down as ideal. Two pupils marked only 1; two

TABLE I

AVERAGE SCORES ON ORIGINAL AND PARALLEL TESTS AND THE DIFFERENCES

Class	Number in Group	Original	Parallel	Difference
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Study Group			
Grade V	12	120	130	10
Grade VI	12	122	130	8
Grade VII	9	128	133	5
Grade VIII	13	123	134	11
Grade IX	16	128	138	10
Grade X	14	123	136	13
Grade XI	6	122	138	16
Grade XII	17	109	131	22
Average	99	122	134	12
	Control Group			
Grade V	7	114	121	7
Grade VI	6	125	129	4
Grade VII	22	129	131	2
Grade VIII	15	129	130	1
Grade IX	5	128	139	11
Grade X	4	123	129	6
Grade XI	4	123	129	6
Grade XII	7	105	117	12
Average	70	122	128	6

marked 20; the average was 8.4. Assuming that their scores on these 8.4 situations were the same as their average score, the total earned on these situations was 36. Assuming the extreme case, if their actual performance had a value of 0 on the scale for scoring, the average difference between knowledge of right conduct and performance would be 36 points on a scale with a total of 124 points, a difference of about 29 per cent. Their conduct would fall 29 per cent short of their knowledge. The actual difference is, perhaps, somewhat less than that.

The writer also took the reaction of 50 twelfth-grade pupils in another school to the situations in the parallel test by asking

them the question, "What do you think you would do if you were confronted with these situations?" As the pupils were strangers to the writer, the reactions are as frank and as honest as the pupils could make them. Scored by the scale for scoring, these 50 tests ranged in total score from 53 to 130 with an average of 97. The twelfth-grade pupils in the experiment, on the original test before instruction, had a range of 63 to 139 with an average of 108 when asked what one should do in each of the situations. The difference between knowledge and performance is apparently 11 points, about 10 per cent. But since these two sets of data are not exactly comparable, as different tests were used, no conclusions should be drawn from them.

A study was made of the relation of the scores on the original test and the gain in score after instruction to mental age. The mental age of the pupils in the seventh to twelfth grades, inclusive, was computed by the use of the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability. The correlation between scores on the original test and mental age was $.14 \pm .005$. The relation, though positive, is hardly large enough to be significant. In this experiment the pupils of higher mental age did not have a better understanding of honest reactions than the pupils of lower mental age between the limits of 90 to 240 months. The correlation between gain in score after instruction and mental age was $.27 \pm .05$. The relation is positive but too small to be highly significant. In this experiment the pupils of lower mental age profited almost as much by the instruction as did those of higher mental age within the limits of 90 to 240 months.

A study of the reactions to specific situations gives much interesting data. Some situations gained a large percentage of perfect scores; others gained a large percentage of 0 scores. Some showed a large percentage of typical, imperfect reactions. Space will not permit, however, of a full discussion of these data. A study of them should be made, if the experiment is to be repeated.

Certain tentative conclusions may be drawn from the data. The tests used in this experiment gave better results with the pupils of the four upper grades than with those of the four lower grades because of the tendency of the pupils of the lower grades to misunderstand the situation and to give misfire reactions. The instructional materials and methods were almost as successful with the younger children as with the older. Though

the gains in score due to instruction were small, perhaps the gain in understanding of honesty principles is greater. Some pupils said on the original test, "Do not borrow money from your little brother's bank, for you may get caught," whereas some said on the parallel test, "Do not use class funds for your own needs, because you should not use anything without the owner's consent," a distinct gain in understanding of honesty principles. There was some evidence of transfer from the principle to the specific situation. The original scores were too near the perfect score, however, to admit of large gains, so the quantity of transfer possible was too limited to make the results conclusive.

The urgent problem in teaching honesty is apparently not in giving pupils an intellectual understanding of what constitutes right conduct, since their knowledge without instruction is about 84 per cent of the ideal, but rather to give them emotional stimuli or motives and practice in habit formation to insure their doing as well as they know, since they admit they fall short in their conduct as much, possibly, as 29 per cent.

This experiment could well be repeated with these improvements: First, the two tests (Forms A and B for convenience in discussion) should be made from situations based on not more than three principles of honesty. Second, the situations should be sufficiently difficult or controversial that the pupils would be unable without instruction to make scores near the perfect score. A study of the reactions to the situations in the present experiment should aid in the selection of situations. Third, for the original test, Form A should be given to some groups and Form B to an equal number of groups. For the parallel tests, each group should have the form that it did not have as an original test. By this procedure the relative difficulty of the two tests could later be computed. Fourth, the scoring scale should make finer distinctions. Fifth, the course of study should be taught until each pupil in the study group could state, explain, and illustrate the three principles of honesty. Such a procedure would eliminate any doubt as to the degree of understanding of the principles.

How the Faculty of a Technical Institute Divides Its Time

By E. M. MORECOCK

THE average working week for an office employee in an industrial organization is forty-four hours, while the actual scheduled hours for a teacher in our public schools and colleges seldom exceed twenty-five hours a week. What does the teacher do with the balance of his time? What, if any, are his duties in addition to his regularly scheduled classes? Are duties other than scheduled hours properly divided among the faculty members? These questions and many others of a similar nature may be answered by a study of faculty time.

During the school year of 1930–31 a study of the distribution of the faculty members' time was conducted at the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute. The results of this study brought forth many interesting facts. An explanation of how this study was conducted and its results can best be accomplished by first acquainting the reader with the organization of the institution in which the study was made.

Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute is a technical institute offering day and evening courses to men and women eighteen years of age and over. The Institute is divided into the School of Industrial Arts, School of Applied Arts, School of Food Administration, and School of Retail Distribution. The School of Industrial Arts is further divided into the chemical, electrical, mechanical, and construction supervision departments. The administrative staff consists of a director for each school and a supervisor for each department. Students in the School of Applied Arts attend on a full-time basis. Other students attend on a co-operative basis of four weeks in school and four weeks at work. An exception to this plan is found in the construction supervision course in which students attend school six months during the winter months and work six months during the building season. Each department of the Institute offers evening courses.

For seven consecutive months two report sheets were sent out to each faculty member who taught day-school classes. These report sheets were divided vertically so as to provide a column for each day of the week, and contained fifty-five hori-

zontal divisions each representing a ten-minute interval of time. One sheet carried time markings in a column on the left for ten-minute intervals between 8:00 A.M. and 5:00 P.M. The second sheet provided a space for time intervals to be marked, and was to be used for any time spent between 5:00 P.M. and 8:00 A.M. Before the time study was started one instructor in each department was asked to pass in a duty list of all the activities he was called upon to do. From these reports the following duty list was made:

	Charge Numbers
Recitation classes	1
Laboratory, drawing, shop classes	2
Preparation for classes—to cover study in preparation for classes, not to cover time spent writing case material, making drawings or prints, mimeograph sheets, writing laboratory sheets, etc.	3
Marking recitation papers, laboratory reports, drawings, exercises, etc.	4
Course development, writing laboratory sheets, design sheets, study sheets, drawings, etc. (Not to cover Mr. Charters' work)	5
Curriculum design (Work with Mr. Charters or pertaining to this type of work)	6
Developing laboratories, shops, etc., to cover time planning, purchasing, and installing equipment	7
Interviews with prospective students	8
Interviews with students	9
Interviews with faculty members	10
Office routine, absence reports, mark reports, telephone calls, etc.	11
Tutoring for which extra pay is not received	12
Student activities—class advisers, student advisers, advisers to student council, papers, etc. Athletic advisers, coaching, managers	13
Social activities, chaperoning dances, fraternity meetings, student gatherings, etc.	14
Duties assigned for school other than teaching to cover special assignments not pertaining directly to teaching, cafeteria management outside of class duties, work done for other departments or for buildings, preparing news articles, ordering materials (not covered under charge 6 and 106), catalogue work, pictures, etc.	15
Work done outside of Institute for which earnings go to Institute	16
Proctoring examinations	17
Alumni work	18
Time spent with visitors, and time spent making business calls or visits, to cover visits to art galleries, power plants, business calls, etc.	19
Committee work not otherwise covered	20
Testing, preparing and marking examinations, and all work pertaining to testing students and obtaining student records not otherwise covered	21
Make-up examinations, marking make-up examinations, and all work pertaining to same	22
Arranging schedules	23

Miscellaneous work not covered by any of the numbers already given. If any of these numbers are used on time-study chart, enter the work which it is used to represent on the bottom of the time study.... 24 to 30
Similar duties in night school..... 101 to 124

Each faculty member was instructed to place charge numbers from the duty list opposite the time on the report sheet. For example: Mr. Smith enters school Monday at 8:40 A.M. and spends twenty minutes preparing for classes. He then enters the classroom at 9:00 A.M. and teaches for two hours. A figure 3, which is the charge number for preparation of classes, should

TABLE I

TIME SPENT BY FACULTY

School Divisions	Total Number of Reports	Maximum Hours per Week	Minimum Hours per Week	Average Hours per Week
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Directors and supervisors	48	60.2	39.8	48.3
Building construction supervision	9	49.5	32.7	45.0
Chemical department	17	56.8	32.0	43.3
Electrical department	34	63.8	36.0	48.3
Nontechnical department[a]	20	56.0	41.0	55.2
Mechanical department	52	60.8	32.0	46.0
Industrial arts	132	63.8	32.0	48.6
Applied arts	46	67.8	30.0	46.5
Food administration	26	79.0	33.5	49.1
Retail distribution	17	49.7	38.0	42.9
Entire faculty	269	79.0	30.0	47.3

[a] Nontechnical subjects of the collegiate level, such as foreign languages, social sciences, and the like, are taught in this department.

appear twice in the Monday column opposite the time intervals 8:40 A.M. and 8:50 A.M., and the charge figure 1, for recitation classes, should appear twelve times in the Monday column opposite the time intervals between 9:00 A.M. and 11:00 A.M. In this manner an account of time for the entire week is kept. Reports were passed in for only one week of each month, but, in order to eliminate error due to certain work coming on the same week of the month, the reports were made out for different weeks of the months.

The data from each set of reports were tabulated by departments, by schools, and for the entire faculty. Seven data tables were constructed, each showing maximum, minimum, and average hours per week for faculty members and the percentage of total time spent for each item on the duty list. At the end of the

seven months a composite data table similar to the seven tables for each month was made.

A comparison between the composite data for the school year and the data for each month was made. This comparison indicated that a correlation of .90 or higher existed between data on all monthly tables and the composite table except for one month, and for this month a correlation between .80 and .90 existed. Data for the month of November were almost a duplicate of those obtained for the entire year, while data for the month of May showed the lowest correlation to the composite data table. The results of the comparisons would indicate that a time study taken for one week in the year will give an indication of how faculty time is spent with an accuracy of 85 per cent.

From the composite data for the year the time spent by the members of the faculty on their different activities was allotted as follows:

	Charge Number	Percentage of Time
Recitation	1	12.1
Laboratory, drawing, shop	2	21.1
Preparation	3	7.6
Marking	4	7.6
Course development, curriculum, laboratory development	5, 6, 7	13.7
Interviews	8, 9, 10	5.3
Office routine	11	6.9
Various duties	12 to 22	12.0
Miscellaneous	23	6.2
Night-school duties	101 to 124	7.5

The information regarding the time distribution of the faculty, gained from this study, expressed in hours spent per week, is given in Table I. From these data it appears than an instructor at Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute works on an average approximately 48 hours per week. His actual scheduled hours are approximately 40 per cent of his working hours. Within a given department considerable variation is found in the number of working hours for different members.

From the correlation coefficients computed between the records for various months, it is found that the time distribution for one week of the year will give an approximate check on the distribution of faculty time.

Teaching Opportunities in 1933

By EARL W. ANDERSON

OPPORTUNITIES in teaching for graduates of the College of Education of Ohio State University in 1933 were approximately the same as those in 1932. Employment seemed especially difficult to find during the first half of the year, but during the last half of 1933 there was a definite improvement in the employment situation brought about for the most part by vacancies occurring after the regular school year started.

Forty per cent of the graduates of 1933 secured teaching positions; 8 per cent were not interested in teaching; and 52 per cent were unable to obtain employment as teachers. Of the 1932 graduates, 40 per cent secured positions; 5 per cent were not interested in teaching; and 55 per cent were unable to obtain employment. The large cities were still reducing their staffs, although it appeared that the reduction had about ceased at the time of the opening of the school year 1933–34.

The number of graduates in the College of Education was 414 in 1933 as compared with 421 in 1932. Table I gives a picture of the success of the graduates who majored in specific subjects.

In fields having fewer than ten graduates in 1932 the employment was as follows:

Subject	Number of Graduates	Percentage Available
Commercial	5	60
Economics	1	0
Geography	5	80
German	4	100
Nursing education	9	44
Physics	2	50
Public speaking	2	0[1]
Spanish	3	33[1]

Although on the average, the success in securing positions was the same for the graduates of 1933 as for those of 1932, yet there was considerable variation within the subject fields. The year 1933 was better than 1932 for majors in agricultural education, biology, elementary education, fine arts, French, history, Latin, and mathematics. There was no change in the field

[1]No classes were taught in this subject by those who secured positions.

of English, and the opportunities seemed fewer in 1933 than in 1932 for majors in chemistry, home economics, industrial arts, music, and physical education.

Of the graduates of 1933, 23 people who secured teaching positions made no direct use of their major training. The majors of these 23 were: biology, 4; chemistry, 1; French, 2; history, 7; home economics, 1; industrial arts, 2; Latin, 1; physical education (men), 1; public speaking, 2; Spanish, 2.

TABLE I

THE PERCENTAGE OF THE GRADUATES OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION FOR THE LAST FOUR YEARS WHO WERE UNABLE TO SECURE POSITIONS

MAJOR SUBJECTS	NUMBER OF GRADUATES IN 1933 DESIRING POSITIONS	PERCENTAGES AVAILABLE FOR TEACHING POSITIONS DECEMBER 31 OF THE YEAR OF GRADUATION			
		Class of 1933	Class of 1932	Class of 1931	Class of 1930
Agricultural education	32[a]	34	41	19	10
Biology	34	53	59	50	30
Chemistry	17	82	38	33	0
Elementary education	47	40	41	38	4
English	38	63	63	56	42
Fine arts	29	52	69	63	31
French	10	40	67	83	50
History	41	56	60	61	37
Home economics	56[b]	57	34	22	10
Industrial arts	18	61	25	6	0
Latin	8	37	80	14	0
Mathematics	20	60	74	43	0
Music	26	50	35	33	15
Physical education:					
Men	16	87	.....	.....	.....
Women	17	59	.....	.....	.....
Combined	33	73	70	57	19

[a] All graduates of teacher-training courses in College of Agriculture.
[b] Includes 50 graduates of the College of Agriculture and 6 of the College of Education.

It must be remembered that not only the major field of preparation, but also the minor field and the number of different fields in which a graduate is prepared to teach are factors in obtaining positions. There has been a decided tendency during the past year to employ home-town teachers, sometimes at the expense of the local school. Thus it may appear that opportunities are good in a specific field, whereas analysis of the subjects taught by these majors may show that they secured their

[*Continued on page 106*]

NEW TESTS

An attempt to discover the degree to which junior and senior high-school pupils know the correct etiquette in social situations is represented by A Test of Knowledge of Social Usage, prepared by Ruth Strang, Marion A. Brown, and Dorothy C. Stratton, and recently published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. Probably the most valuable feature of this test is the specific content. The items of social usage were selected from an analysis of several books on good manners for high-school pupils and recent standard books of etiquette. The ones chosen for the test form were those which were emphasized in the books and which were rated as important by 50 teachers and personnel workers and 300 high-school pupils. Only one form is available which contains 100 true-false items classified under table manners, dress and appearance, manners for guest and host, good form in walking with people, consideration for others, good form in talking with people, relations to a group, respect for property, and actions at performances and games. There are so few items under many of these classes that the test is probably not satisfactory for diagnosing the particular misunderstandings of proper social usage.

No evidence is given in the test manual to indicate how satisfactorily this true-false test serves to identify the pupils who know what the correct social usage is in the actual life situations. The test probably indicates those who can recognize statements of proper and of improper behavior. The only reliability coefficient computed for the test was one obtained by a retest using the same form one month after the first test was given. The coefficient of .87 indicates that there is little change in relative achievement of pupils on this form in one month's time. How satisfactorily these items sample all of the important standards of social conduct is not indicated since this type of reliability coefficient was not computed. The test will probably be suggestive of the need for developing means for measuring the pupils' attainments of important objectives in the field of social conduct.

R. W. Tyler

EDITORIAL COMMENT

A Planned Social Order

THE Cleveland meeting, most vigorous and interesting of the superintendence meetings in years, brought the left wing of the educational theorists conspicuously to the center of the stage. The demand was frequently voiced that the teachers of the nation must formulate a plan for social reconstruction and press for its acceptance by children in the classroom and by citizens in the market place.

That there is a need for a changed social order is accepted by millions of farmers, laborers, professional people, and industrialists. The old order has not been healthy for a generation, and the depression has delivered blows to its chin and solar plexus so ferociously that it is groggy, though not completely down and out. The situation is therefore serious. No one doubts that changes must be made and that they are now taking place with a tempo of dazzling speed. No one can justly claim that the schools have been doing their duty to make the citizens of today, who were the adolescents of yesterday, well informed about current political and social problems and intelligent about devising new plans of action. They have evaded the disputed subjects of national political and social conflicts in the classroom. They have not made the citizenry which has gone through high school or college better informed or more active than those who have completed only the grades of the elementary school.

They have had good reasons for the evasion. One is that teachers are not themselves well informed on social and political issues; the other is that whenever such issues are handled by teachers in school the parents of the children push for reprimand and even dismissal of the offenders. And since the teachers are not martyrs and since they know little about political and social matters, it is natural that, in general, they should not seek for trouble by studying and discussing controversial issues in the classroom.

The left wing is correct in the feeling which prompts its statements. The schools are graduating future citizens without training them how to reach deliberate conclusions about what to do both during crises and before and after the events have

happened. The schools have such an obligation, and this the left wing seems to feel with deep intensity.

THE method, however, of meeting the situation by formulating a better plan and indoctrinating children will not work. Clearly, a realist cannot claim that nine hundred thousand teachers nor even fifty thousand university professors can agree on a best plan or even a good plan. In fact, if the fifty most prominent members of the left wing attempted to formulate a plan in sufficient detail to give it teeth, they themselves could not agree. And even if teachers did agree upon a plan, there is no likelihood that it would be so good that they would be justified in indoctrinating high-school boys and girls.

The school is performing its social mission when it considers the problems in conflict and dispassionately provides all available and pertinent data for the children to reach their own conclusions. The schools should be satisfied to graduate students who are informed, who know where to find facts and how to organize them into what seem to be valid conclusions. As citizens, teachers have the inescapable duty of forming their own conclusions and working for their acceptance in the forum; but in the classroom their business is to teach children how to become well-informed and thoughtful students, capable of thinking for themselves.

This the schools have not been doing on a national scale, and if the left wing by discussion, exhortation, and example can incite large numbers of teachers to take on this responsibility, it will have performed an important service. That they want to induce a quarter of a million high-school and college teachers to devise and propound a planned social order is not important because it cannot be done. Their important contribution is to stimulate the schools to pay adequate attention to the problems of the nation in such forceful fashion that a well-informed citizenry will be available to do the best it can to solve our national problems. An intelligent nation can be trusted to work out its own destiny.

W.W.C.

READINGS

WOODRING, MAXIE N., AND METCALFE, ZAIDA F. "The Use of the Interview in the Improvement of Study," *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (March, 1934), pp. 480–92.

Information helpful in aiding students to improve their study, which is best obtained by means of the interview, includes "conditions for study in the home; schedule of work outside the class; methods of work; associates; attitude of pupil toward the work." Values in these uses of the interview depend upon the place where the interview is held, the flexibility and adaptability of the interview program, manner of the interviewer, and the method and time of recording the information obtained. Specific suggestions are listed and discussed in this excellent article.

UNZICKER, SAMUEL P. "Trait Actions of Junior High School Citizens," *School Review*, XLII (April, 1934), pp. 272–82.

In the experiment described in this article 350 trait actions illustrating 10 trait groups were submitted to various groups to be rated for importance on a three-point scale. Correlations figured between the ratings of the groups ranged from .45 (the correlation between frontier thinkers and pupils) to .77 (the correlation between superintendents and elementary-school teachers). None of the correlations between two adult groups were below .70. A list of the trait actions which were considered most important by the raters is given, and a report card based on these traits is suggested.

GILBERT, LUTHER C. "Effect of Reading on Spelling in the Ninth Grade," *School Review*, XLII (March, 1934), pp. 197–204.

This article describes an experiment in which an attempt was made to discover if ninth-grade pupils learned to spell through reading. A spelling dictation test was given before and after the reading of a selection in which were found the words to be investigated. A gain from the first to the second test was found both with the words encountered in the reading and with those not encountered. The gain, however, for those encountered in the reading was the larger. The author concludes that ninth-grade pupils do improve their spelling through reading; good spellers profit more than poor ones; gain occurs even though attention is not directed to spelling, but the gain is larger if there has been a recent attempt to spell the word in question.

LE SOURD, HOMER W. "Teaching Scientific Method," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIV (March, 1934), pp. 234–35.

The phrase "scientific method" is recognized as one of the major objectives of a science course. Teachers have been urged to teach pupils to apply the scientific method. Unfortunately, seldom has the phrase been defined in concrete terms so that it can be recognized in the behavior of students. A series of articles is appearing in issues of this periodical. The first article illustrates two phases of the scientific method, the setting up of experiments to test hypotheses and the drawing of reasonable generalizations from the experi-

mental data. Teachers of science will be interested in reading these articles to obtain concrete illustrations of what pupils are expected to do when they use the scientific method.

WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE. "Correlation of Natural Science Beliefs and Attitudes with Social and Intellectual Factors," *Science Education*, XVIII (February, 1934), pp. 10–12.

It is being recognized that there is a difference in the achievement of students in the various objectives of teaching. Students who have reached a high achievement in one objective may have made little progress in another objective. That a student knows the facts in a given field does not necessarily mean that he can use those facts, nor that he has a scientific attitude toward problems. In this article some evidence is reported which shows that a student who does well at drawing conclusions from science problems has little knowledge of the science facts. The relationship between the scores of the same students on these two kinds of tests was only .42. This reliability of the tests was .93.

This evidence is significant for teachers. It may not be assumed that by teaching students the facts of a subject the other expected outcomes of teaching that subject are also reached. Emphasis in teaching must be given to each of the important objectives of instruction so that desirable changes may result.

The writer has also pointed out that the relationship between the ability to draw conclusions from science problems and verbal intelligence as measured by the Otis Self-Administering Test is low, only .38. Low relationships between scores on verbal intelligence tests and achievement in the outcomes of teaching are important for teachers to consider.

JEWETT, IDA A. "A Decade of Research in English in Teachers Colleges, *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (March, 1934), pp. 460–72.

Forty-four studies made in teacher-training institutions in the field of English during the last decade are here classified, summarized, and interpreted. The classifications used are teacher supply and demand, curriculum, classroom technique, and measurement. The author recommends the appointment of a permanent committee for recording research studies in teachers' college English. An annotated bibliography is included.

STALNAKER, JOHN M. "The Construction and Results of a Twelve-Hour Test in English Composition," *School and Society*, XXXIX (February 17, 1934), pp. 218–24.

The Board of Examiners of the University of Chicago has the problem of evaluating the achievement of students in English composition. Examinations were devised to obtain evidence of the degree to which important objectives of instruction in English composition were being reached by students. Before marking the examinations, the readers were made aware of previous studies of objectivity. They planned to obtain greater agreement in the reading of these papers. By working in small groups and agreeing upon the standards by which to evaluate the examinations higher degrees of objectivity were obtained than are usually found. A sample of papers was re-read. The coefficients of correlation between the two readings ranged from .73 to .98. The relationships between different objectives measured by the tests were

not high. They ranged from .03 to .61. This evidence supports other evidence which has been collected and indicates that higher achievement in one objective is not necessarily followed by high achievement in another objective.

STEWART, MARIETTA. "A Scale for Measuring the Quality of Conventional News Stories in High School Journalism," *English Journal*, XXIII (March, 1934), pp. 209–15.

The wide variations obtained in grading the written themes and journalistic writings of students has led the writer to construct a device for obtaining more objective evaluations. She has selected one phase of journalistic writing, the news story, for which a scale was constructed.

Eight hundred conventional news stories, based upon a given set of facts, were collected from elementary- and secondary-school pupils in several states. A sample group of these news stories was sent to one hundred teachers of English and journalism to be ranked *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, or *E*. Numerical values were assigned to each news story according to the deviation of its mean value from the mean value of all the stories.

The device as finally constructed consists of statements of the facts about which the news story was written and five specimen news stories with the scale value for each. In evaluating other news stories, the scale can be used against which to check news stories. For example, when a teacher reads a news story, he can compare it in quality with the specimens on the scale and decide to which specimen the news story is most similar. In this way the variations between individual readers is expected to be obtained, and hence the objectivity of the marking increased. The writer has not reported any experimentation which shows that objectivity is thus increased.

In Paper Covers

BLACKHURST, J. HERBERT. *Workbook for Introducing Education, Form A.* New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1932. 87 pp.

The author presents, in this workbook, twenty-five lessons supplementing his textbook *Introducing Education*. The lessons constitute vocabulary studies, discussion questions, problems, experiments, and objective tests, which cover methods of study, use of library, philosophy and history of education, school administration, curriculum construction, and the psychology of learning and testing. Most of the lessons are divided into required and extra credit assignments. The material is organized with enough flexibility to make it adaptable to the needs of a class. General courses in college orientation would find the exercises on methods of study quite valuable.

MAURICE E. TROYER

STREET, CLAUDE W. *State Control of Teacher Training in the United States.* Pittsburg, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1932. x+103 pp. (Bureau of Educational Research Monograph, No. 2)

Five general types of state organizations for the administration of teacher training were evaluated by the author and by eighty-one experts in education and government. The judgments of educational experts were rather in agreement that the best form of state control for teacher training is through

delegation of broad powers to a state board of education of seven members, appointed by the governor, and vested with general supervision and control over the whole state school system. They should choose a state commissioner of education and provide for a specialist in the administration of teacher training. This board should have control over teacher-training work in all public and private institutions in the state. A number of the state surveys recommend a state board of education controlling the teachers' colleges but not controlling other institutions of higher education.

The report presents clear pictures of the present state organizations for the administration of teacher training and of the recommendations of various survey groups who have examined and evaluated such organizations in a number of the states.

EARL W. ANDERSON

PHILLIPS, EVELYN BUTLER. *An Analysis of the Curricula of the Small High Schools of Maine.* Orono, Maine: University Press, 1932. 89 pp. (University of Maine Studies, Second Series, No. 23)

The purpose of this study as stated by the author is "to make an analysis of the curricula offered in the small high schools of Maine" and "to evaluate them in the light of fundamental educational objectives." The first objective has been well carried out; the data are complete and presented in a clear and orderly manner. This first part of the investigation represents the real value of the study. The second objective is not so well treated; the author made no attempt at any real evaluation except to compare the subjects of the curriculum with such formulations of objectives as the Seven Cardinal Principles and quotations from books on the curriculum. In spite of the lack of original contributions in this phase of the study, however, the analysis of the present curriculums in the small Maine high schools makes the study of value.

J. L. CLIFTON

FLOYD, OLIVER R. *The Preparation of Junior High School Teachers.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932. vi+37 pp. (United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 20)

The junior high school is not considered by most states to be enough of a distinct unit in a public-school system to justify separate requirements for the teachers. Apparently, both the authorities who certificate and those who train teachers for junior high-school positions conceive of the junior high school as an extension of the secondary school or as an extension of the elementary school. In many of the states no courses are offered especially for junior high-school teachers, and in those states in which specific courses are offered there is seldom found training in guidance, in extra-curricular activities, or in the psychology of the adolescent.

This report covers certification requirements in the various states, courses found in the extra-curricular subjects for the preparation of junior high-school teachers, and subjects taught by 1,355 junior high-school teachers scattered throughout the United States, excepting the southeastern section. The reviewer could not find just what proportion of the junior high-school teachers was included in the 1,355 teachers in the three-year junior high schools. Their programs were incongruous with their training. In general,

they were given heavy programs in junior high schools which seemed to have no patterns of subject combinations. Approximately one-fourth of the schools still employ new teachers without degrees. The author recommends a requirement of definite preparation for junior high-school teaching, following functional curriculums for the preparation of junior high-school teachers including preparation for the teaching of at least two and possibly three subjects following well-planned subject combinations.

EARL W. ANDERSON

WILLIAMS, HAROLD; SIEVERS, CLEMENT; AND HATTWICK, MELVIN. *The Measurement of Musical Development.* Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1932. 191 pp. (University of Iowa Studies, Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. VII, No. 1)

This evaluation of experimental work done with pre-school children in music is invaluable to all persons interested in music education. In no field is there more urgent need for experimentation in how we learn than in music. Here is a record of the techniques used and the findings of the experiments with young children in a wide range of problems. These experiments will be especially interesting to primary and kindergarten teachers, and to all teachers of the pre-school age. Established methods of music teaching will be challenged by the findings of these studies and through such experimentation, music education may improve. The conclusions of the experiments are clearly stated and stimulating to teachers who wonder how they can better teach music to their students.

JOSEPH A. LEEDER

Books to Read

FITZPATRICK, EDWARD A., Editor. *St. Ignatius and the Ratio Studiorum.* New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1933. xi+275 pp. (McGraw-Hill Education Classics)

Notwithstanding the important part which the Jesuits have played in the history of education and the existence of a number of treatises on their educational work, there has been hitherto no complete English translation of the *Ratio Studiorum.* The present volume contains, in addition to the *Ratio* of 1599, a translation of Part IV of the Constitutions of the Society of Jesus, and an analytical outline of St. Ignatius' Spiritual Exercises. It constitutes, therefore, a real and welcome addition to educational source material available in English. There is a good historical introduction.

R. H. ECKELBERRY

ARNSPIGER, VARNEY C. *Measuring the Effectiveness of Sound Pictures as Teaching Aids.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. vii+156 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 565)

Motion pictures have again proved their value as a classroom aid. This study, like those of Knowlton, Wood and Freeman, McCluskey, and others, demonstrates the superiority of certain film-aided instruction versus instruction not given such assistance. Approximately 950 fifth-grade pupils in 32 classes

and 1,425 seventh-grade pupils in the same number of classes participated in the experiment. Four films were used in natural science: butterflies, beetles, amphibians, and growth of plants. Four were also used in music: the string choir, the wood-wind choir, the brass choir, and the percussion group. Controls were set up for the teacher, social background of pupils, mental-test score, pre-test score, but apparently not for sex. The validity of the findings depends primarily on whether these are the four important variables affecting progress in the two subjects studied.

The average gain of the science group over the non-movie group was 26 per cent, and in the music group the superiority in average gain was 27 per cent. Translated into classroom terms, one is probably justified in assuming that for the objective sought, namely, the increase in specific information about music and science, the film group could attain in four thirty-minute periods what took five periods for the control group.

EDGAR DALE

WEEDON'S *Modern Encyclopedia.* Edited by Garry Cleveland Myers; Executive Editor, Harry Esty Dounce; Art Director, Wallis H. Sturtevant; Canadian Editor, T. W. L. MacDermot. Cleveland, Ohio: S. L. Weedon Company, 1931. 8 volumes.

This work advertised as a "newly written" and "modern" encyclopedia for children suggests of necessity comparison with other well-known works in this field, and should be prepared to justify its existence by excellence in its treatment of subject-matter common to encyclopedias of this type or by new features not found in other works. This challenge the publishers accept and list in an attractive prospectus twenty-five reasons why Weedon's *Encyclopedia* is the "most effective educational work ever published." Making due allowances for natural enthusiasm and modern methods of high-pressure salesmanship, one can readily agree that this work is interesting and of potential value to children.

Colored illustrations, charts, and tables are an attractive feature of the work and will add much to its popularity with juvenile readers. The maps leave something to be desired in that states and countries are represented only by relief maps, necessitating reference to an atlas as a supplementary aid. There would appear to be no good reason for this omission of such a practical and useful feature.

A special feature of the work according to the publishers is the style in which the articles are written for the child reader. Striking introductory sentences are used in many articles with the idea of arresting and fixing the attention of the reader. Opinions will naturally differ as to the success of such a plan in a long list of special articles. Some are obviously more successful than others.

In each volume there is a list of articles which the editor thinks are likely to be of special interest to children. Some articles are purely informational in scope, others such as "stories to be read aloud" are obviously designed to invite the student to more general reading. It is a fair question whether children will not prefer to use individual books for material of this type rather than to find it in an encyclopedia, where it is submerged in a mass of other articles.

The index volume adds greatly to the value of the work. Aside from

references to the longer articles, it indicates the columns on the page to which citation is made. Many simple and minor factual statements are thus keyed in the index. It combines the features of a classified subject index and a dictionary in one alphabet. Since illustrations of a great variety of types are an important feature of this work, it is a pleasure to find them under their appropriate places in the index volume.

Outlines of study which may be used in connection with school courses are a useful feature of the index volume. A suggested reading list of five hundred approved books for children will be found of value.

In brief, school libraries will find this encyclopedia a useful addition to *Compton's*, *The World Book*, and other compilations of similar type. Considered for home use it should be carefully compared with the other two works just mentioned. Question of price, suitability for particular needs, and personal impressions of its good points should influence the purchaser.

EARL N. MANCHESTER

SHIPLEY, GERTRUDE T. *An Evaluation of Guided Study and Small-Group Discussion in a Normal School.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. vii+52 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 486)

An attempt has been made to evaluate a small-group study-discussion procedure in contrast with a regular class-discussion procedure. Thirteen classes consisting of 341 Seniors taking a course in principles of education took part in the experiment. The classes were divided into two groups; the experimental group was taught by the small-group study-discussion procedure and the control group by the class-discussion procedure. The groups were equated on the basis of five factors, but no report is made of the effectiveness with which these factors control the experiment. The experimenter concluded that "the experimental group did at least as well as the control group as evidenced by the objective-test results, and the data tend to favor the experimental method."

FRED P. FRUTCHEY

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, COMMITTEE ON LIBRARY WORK WITH CHILDREN. *The Right Book for the Right Child.* New York: John Day Company, 1933. xxvi+357 pp.

A most interesting and helpful list has been prepared by a committee of the American Library Association and the research department of the Winnetka school system. The committee responsible for the selection and annotation has done an excellent piece of work. The grading was done by the Research Department according to a formula evolved for the purpose. This formula grades according to reading ability as determined by standardized tests; vocabulary and sentence difficulty and to some extent content analysis is employed. This method has resulted in rather unexpected grade-placement of many books. The authors, in their preface, clearly acknowledge and account for this fact. If the user also keeps it well in mind the volume will doubtless be an excellent tool. Like age-weight tables, selection of books for children must depend upon the individual child. Temperament, special interests, and environment must be considered as well as reading ability. In addition to grade-placement, the books have been grouped into first, second, and third choices for libraries of

varying sizes. Prices and publishers are faithfully given and the annotations seem excellent. The splendid index, which is by author, title, and subject, is deserving of praise. All in all, it is a most welcome volume for parents, teachers, and librarians.

RUTH SEEGER

JACOBSEN, EINAR W. *Educational Opportunities Provided for Postgraduate Students in Public High Schools.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932 vi+73 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 523)

In attempting to provide appropriate educational opportunities for postgraduate students, principals and teachers feel the need for definite, authoritative information which will help them to arrange an intelligent program for these students. Thus, owing to the need for, and dearth of, material in the field, this first study of the postgraduate problem of Mr. Jacobsen will be welcomed by all those confronted with the immediate task of providing an educational program for these students. Postgraduate enrollment in public high schools increased from 7,986 in 1919–20 (the first year for which these data are available) to 29,225 in 1929–30, or an increase of 266 per cent. During the same period the high-school enrollment increased from 1,999,106 to 4,932,172, an increase of 146 per cent, or slightly more than one-half as much. Although a number of factors, such as the tightening up of college-entrance requirements and the stringent economic plight of the times, could be cited for this decided increase in postgraduate enrollments, one should not lose sight of the fact that the deep faith of the American people in education has popularized it beyond the high-school level.

On the basis of this study the following may be said to be the urgent needs of the postgraduate student: adaptation of subjects taught to the age and experience of the student; a full program of directed subjects and activities; advanced college credit for certain work completed; an appropriate program of extra-curricular activities; an adequate counseling service; and opportunities for further exploration. Considerable data are presented to show that, with few exceptions, the high schools are making little or no effort to meet, in anything like an adequate manner, these needs.

O. FLOYD NIXON

WOMRATH, GEORGE F. *Efficient Business Administration of Public Schools.* Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Company, 1932. xi+463 pp.

This book is unusual in three respects at least. First, it is written by a practical man, a business official who for many years has engaged in every phase of activity he is describing and who through the years has earned a well-deserved reputation as an efficient and progressive school business official. Second, the point of view of the entire book is the construction, operation, and maintenance of school buildings as means to promote the education program. The author rightly contends that the essential physical environment conditions the educational program as well as the program conditions the plant. In the third place, several of the chapters deal with matters not adequately treated in most, if not all, other books on business administration in education, most of which have been written by college professors or school superintendents who

at best deal with the subject as detached spectators. The chapter on "Training Janitor-Engineers" is timely and a decided contribution to the literature. I find the bibliography of the book incomplete. The book, on the whole, is more concerned with the architectural and mechanical aspects than with the educational.

E. E. LEWIS

EDWARDS, NEWTON. *The Courts and the Public Schools; the Legal Basis of School Organization and Administration.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. 591 pp.

All teachers, as well as students and practitioners of school administration, need to be conscious of their own legal rights and obligations, and those of pupils and parents. This is necessary for the performance of their full duty and the avoidance of fruitless conflicts. The conduct of public education is a social and governmental problem which tops all others in long-run importance.

This timely book is a worthy capstone for the earlier comprehensive works in its field, among which are Voorhees' *The Law of Public Schools* (1916), Trusler's *Essentials of School Law* (1927), and Weltzin's *Legal Authority of the American Public School* (1931). Mr. Edwards contributes a selection of cases and an organization of the subject which are unique, and superbly designed to hold the interest and meet the needs of workers in education. For school boards and administrative officers, here is a storehouse of essential information not elsewhere obtainable; and to teachers who want to study the legal basis of American public education and its place in the social and civic order, this book will be invaluable.

M. M. CHAMBERS

CLIFTON, JOHN L. *Ten Famous American Educators.* Columbus, Ohio: R. G. Adams and Company, 1933. 272 pp.

Someone has aptly said that the history of any great movement is written in the lives of a few people. On this premise, the book shows the development of education in America from the kindergarten through the university by means of a biography of ten outstanding educators, beginning with Horace Mann and ending with William Rainey Harper. Although some of the material is taken from original sources, most of it from secondary sources.

The value of the book, in the judgment of the reviewer, lies not in its contribution to the existing knowledge of the achievements of these educators, but in the simple and interesting manner in which the materials are organized and presented. For example, the bibliography for the biography of Henry Barnard includes 69 different sources. Although several different writers contributed to the volume, there runs throughout a simplicity of style and a presentation of human-interest incidents that make it a delightful book to read. One also gets a better concept of the extent to which this small group has molded and fashioned American education as we see it today.

It is so written that it should appeal not only to teachers and others engaged in the field of education, but to high-school and college students, and laymen interested in knowing by whose hands and in what manner public education in the United States has been so largely formulated and directed.

T. C. HOLY

DEVEREAUX, FREDERICK L., AND OTHERS. *The Educational Talking Picture.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. xiii+222 pp.

Machine technology influences not only industrial practice but classroom practice as well. The impact of the invention of the motion-picture machine forty years ago has had significant effects upon classroom practice. In 1926, sound and speech were added to the silent motion picture, and at once pioneers began to experiment with its effectiveness. The author of this comprehensive volume has pointed out in a general way the function of the audible motion picture so far as classroom practice is concerned. He says: "The talking picture, to justify its production must make a definite contribution to instruction, such as presenting sound and sight materials hitherto inaccessible or treating more efficiently those now taught at a disadvantage." This volume should be helpful to those who are contemplating the installation of audible motion-picture equipment in their auditoriums or classrooms.

EDGAR DALE

* * *

Teaching Opportunities in 1933

[*Continued from page 93*]

positions because of training in subjects other than their major or because of home-town contacts. The larger the number of graduates in any area, however, the more likely it is that the percentage who secured positions will truly picture the opportunities for teaching that subject.

There is considerable evidence that opportunities in 1934 will be somewhat greater than they were in 1933. During the last months of 1933 a number of replacements were made as compared with almost none in the last months of 1932. A decided pick-up in calls and placements has been noted for the early part of January, 1934. It appears that more people will leave teaching to go into other occupations in 1934 than in 1933, and that likewise fewer people will be crowded into teaching from other occupations. There is little evidence that salaries will be improved, but the indications are that there will be an increasing number of replacements, not only in the smaller schools but in the medium-sized cities. The number of these opportunities will be directly influenced by changes in the general employment situation in areas other than teaching.